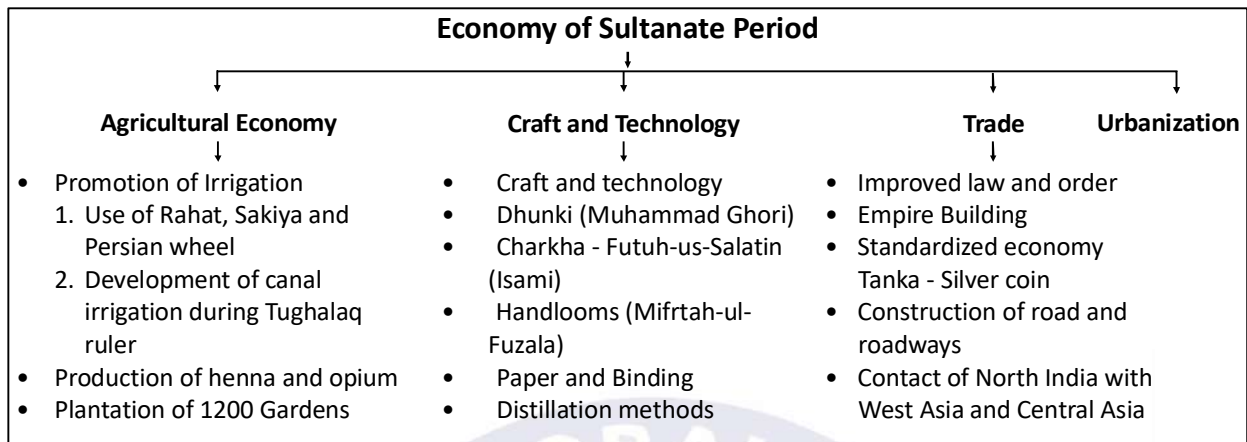


Sultanate Period Economy



The establishment of Turkish rule brought significant changes in the economy and promoted agriculture, handicrafts, commerce, trade, and urbanization.

Agricultural Economy

Agriculture thrived during this period as the fertile land of India supported its growth. Abundant livestock ensured a large supply of animal dung, which was extensively used as manure. Thakkar Pheru, an official during the reign of Alauddin Khilji, documented 25 different types of crops cultivated during this era. The introduction of the Sakiya or Rahat system, based on a gear mechanism, revolutionized irrigation methods. Additionally, various techniques for well water extraction were prevalent. Firoz Shah Tughlaq played a pivotal role in promoting canal irrigation, leading to promotion of agriculture in the Delhi-Haryana region. Notably, Rabi crops were cultivated in addition to Kharif crops. Furthermore, new crops such as opium and henna were introduced alongside traditional crops. Horticulture received significant encouragement, exemplified by the plantation of 1200 gardens by Firoz Shah Tughlaq in Delhi and its vicinity.

Craft or Technology

The arrival of the Turks in India introduced new crafts that stimulated production. For

instance, the practice of ‘Dhunki’ emerged during the time of Muhammad Ghori, revolutionizing cotton cleaning. In the 14th century, the use of the ‘spinning wheel’ was documented in the text ‘Futuh-us-Salatin’, resulting in a sixfold increase in yarn spinning with the charkha. The utilization of looms for weaving clothes was also reported in the book ‘Mifrtah-ul-Fuzala’, further promoting the textile industry. Paper and binding materials were introduced, with Gujarat being the first region to embrace paper circulation. The Turks brought innovative construction techniques, employing arches and domes in their structures. The use of lime and gypsum as mortar to join stones became prevalent, facilitating construction activities. Distillation methods were also employed during this period, leading to the production of higher-quality wine. Additionally, the Sultanate period witnessed the commencement of mulberry silk production in Bengal.

Trade and Commerce

Several factors inspired commerce and trade during this period:

1. Northern India regained close associations with West Asia and Central Asia after a long time.
2. The Sultanate strengthened law and order,

establishing political stability.

3. Sultans like Alauddin khilji and Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq encouraged road construction.
4. Standard currency, such as the tanka and Jital, was introduced after a prolonged interval.
5. New technology facilitated the emergence of production centers.
6. The arrival of a new elite class heightened the demand for luxury goods.
7. Alauddin Khilji's market control system established grain markets and promoted trade.

■ **Internal and external trade-** During the Sultanate period, three distinct trade structures were observed:

1. **Trade between the village and the city:** Grains and raw materials were transported from the villages to the cities. However, the villages did not receive anything in return. These goods were exchanged in the city through land revenue transactions.
2. **Trade between cities:** Internal trade thrived between different cities. For instance, Multan received sugar from Delhi, while liquor was sourced from Meerut and Aligarh.
3. **Trade with foreign regions:** Foreign trade experienced a notable boost during this era.

India maintained trade relations with West Asia, Central Asia, and East Africa in the west, while establishing connections with China and Southeast Asian countries in the east.

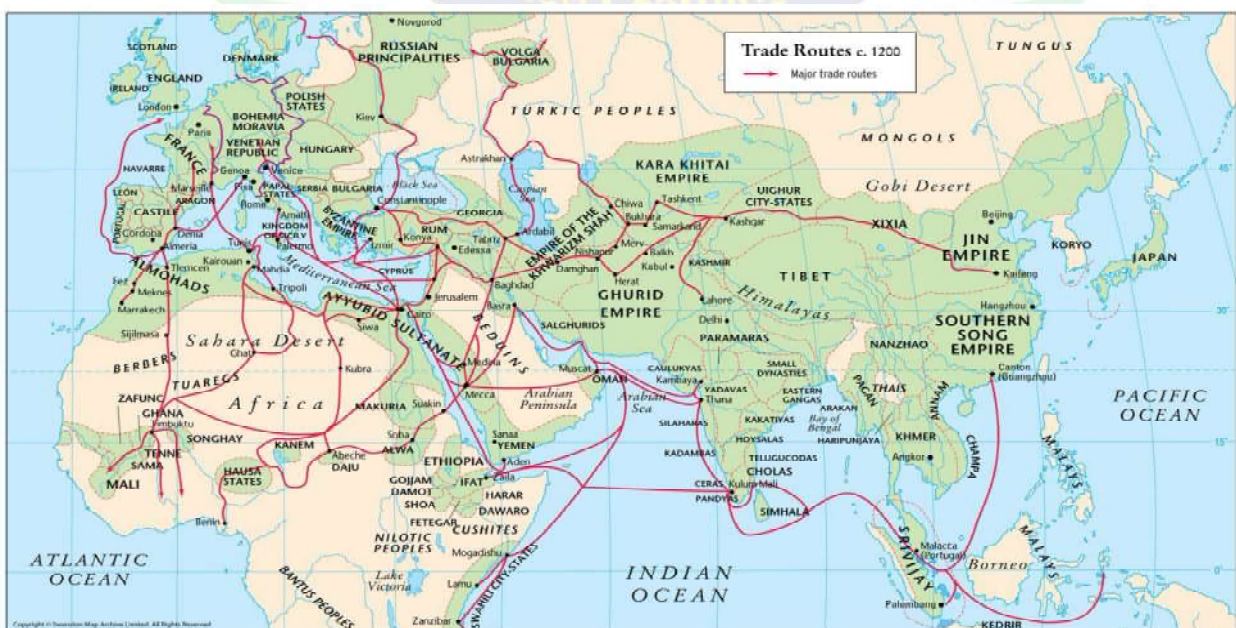
■ Currency System

Iltutmish played a significant role in standardizing currency during his reign. He introduced the tanka, a silver coin, and the Jital, a copper currency. Additionally, he introduced the Dam and Dirham as smaller copper denominations. Notably, Muhammad-bin-Tughlaq introduced the use of token money for the first time in history. These currency reforms contributed to the stability and uniformity of monetary transactions in the Sultanate period.

Urbanization

Several major cities are mentioned in contemporary texts from the Sultanate period, including Delhi, Multan, Anhilwara (Patan), Khambhat, Kada, Lakhnauti, Daulatabad, and Lahore. According to Ibn Battuta, who visited India in 1333 AD, Delhi was the largest city in terms of size and population in the entire Eastern Islamic Empire. Political, administrative, and cultural factors played a pivotal role in promoting the growth of the urban economy during the Sultanate period.

As the Turkish ruling class was a minority in



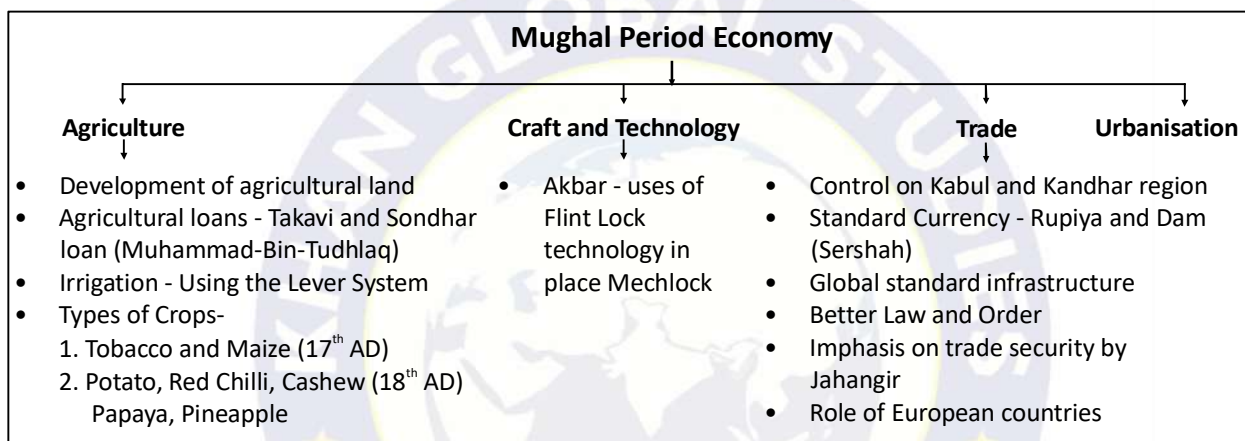
India, military camps were strategically established to maintain security. These camps were positioned around the ruling classes, and resources were allocated to remote areas based on their needs, eventually resulting in the growth of cities. Administrative centers, particularly at the headquarters of Iqta, where members of the ruling class resided, also began to evolve in cities.

Moreover, the influx of scholars and writers to India, driven by the Mongol invasions, contributed to the development of cities centered around cultural activities. The presence of

dargahs and shrines of Sufi saints attracted devotees, resulting in the growth of towns around these religious sites.

Additionally, some sultans demonstrated an interest in city-building. For instance, Alauddin Khilji founded the city of Chhan (Jhain/Jhayin) in eastern Rajasthan, which later came to be known as 'Shahr-e-Nau'. Similarly, Firoz Shah Tughlaq established numerous cities like Jaunpur, Firozpur, Hisar-Firoza, Firozabad, and Fatehabad. Consequently, urbanization expanded significantly under the Sultanate period.

Mughal Period Economy



Agricultural Economy

During the Mughal period, India held its place as one of the most populous regions in the world. The extensive geographical expanse of India resulted in diverse soil compositions and environmental conditions throughout different regions. In contrast to Europe, India possessed fertile soil, enabling the cultivation of two crops, and in certain areas, the possibility of harvesting a third crop during intermediary periods between regular seasons.

Agriculture played a pivotal role in the economy, serving as its backbone and requiring focused development to enhance state revenue. With a relatively smaller population and abundant agricultural land, the state held the authority to ensure farmers remained tied to the land. A farman issued by Aurangzeb, in the name of Rasikdas, underscored the state's commitment to settle vacant lands by providing

assistance to new farmers. The Amalgujars were directed to support the farmers, and the state facilitated their needs through agricultural loans. Government-sponsored initiatives prioritized irrigation, encompassing the construction of wells, ponds, reservoirs, and canals. Techniques like Dhekul, charas, and Sakiya/saqiya were employed to extract water from wells. Jagirdars and beneficiaries of 'Madad-i-maash' were expected to actively contribute to the advancement of agriculture.

Mughal literature, particularly Abul Fazl's Ain-i-Akbari, offers valuable insights into the wide array of crops cultivated during that era. The detailed list encompasses both rabi (winter) crops, ranging from 19 to 21 different types, and kharif (monsoon) crops, ranging from 17 to 21 different types. The cultivation of staple grains thrived, effectively meeting the dietary needs of the urban population. Additionally, cash crops

such as sugarcane, cotton, indigo, and opium, collectively known as 'Jins-i Kamil,' played a crucial role in the agricultural economy. The 17th century witnessed the introduction of tobacco and maize as cash crops from the New World, further diversifying agricultural practices. Coffee cultivation gained momentum in the latter half of the 17th century, while the cultivation of potatoes, red chillies, and tomatoes flourished in the 18th century. The advancement of grafting techniques facilitated the cultivation of new fruit varieties, contributing to the expansion of the agricultural economy.

Mughal kings and princes maintained private gardens, which provided them with financial benefits. The cultivation of cash crops facilitated the monetization of the agricultural economy, contributing to the overall prosperity of the period.

Craft and Technology

During the Mughal period, the thriving commerce and trade industry promoted the growth of craft production. Crafted goods were primarily consumed within the domestic market, but in the 17th century, Indian handicraft industries captured a substantial foreign market, largely due to the influence of European trading companies. These companies brought about a revolutionary change in business practices. While the Portuguese company focused on spice trade, British and Dutch companies greatly interested the textile industry in India. Cotton textiles, in particular, experienced a significant boost as they found a large market in the West. Gujarat and Bengal emerged as important centers for cotton textiles in North India, while Devagiri and Warangal were renowned in South India for their cotton textile production. The diversity of cotton textile products during this period can be traced from the mention of five cotton textile production centers, where 49 different types of cloth were manufactured.

Printing and dyeing of cloth also held prominence as important crafts. Moreover, silk and

woolen textiles were produced abundantly during this period. Kashmir was renowned as a center for silk production, and Banaras also thrived as a hub for silk cloth production. However, the most significant center for silk production was Bengal, where mulberry silk had been produced since the 15th century.

An important economic activity during the Mughal period was the development of carpet weaving technology. Inspired by the Iranian model, carpet weaving gained encouragement during Akbar's reign, with Lahore, Agra, and Fatehpur Sikri emerging as prominent centers in North India. Additionally, carpet weaving also commenced in Delhi, Mirzapur, Warangal, and Masulipatam.

Furthermore, the arrival of Babur introduced the use of firearms in India, including musket guns. Interaction with Europeans enabled Mughal technocrats to familiarize themselves with methods such as the 'Wheel Lock' and 'FlintLock,' although their usage might have been limited. Akbar, for instance, designed a bullock cart capable of transporting goods and grinding grains. He is also credited with inventing a gun that could fire 17 bullets simultaneously. Similarly, the influence of Europeans led to the adoption of anchors in shipbuilding and the practice of using iron anchors. Indians also began utilizing chained pumps, similar to Europeans, to remove water from ships. Therefore, it can be observed that scientific and technological advancements persisted during the Mughal period. Although not as extensive as in Europe, scientific progress flourished at the individual level.

Commerce and Trade

The Mughal rule in India fostered conditions that encouraged both internal and external trade. Internal trade was stimulated by various factors. Firstly, the establishment of a powerful Mughal Empire, which held control over important ports, played a significant role. Additionally, improvements in law and order during this period contributed to a favorable

environment for trade. The state placed special emphasis on collecting land revenue in cash, which promoted the monetization of the economy. Furthermore, Shershah Suri's introduction of the Rupiya and the Dam as standard currencies further strengthened commerce and trade.

Contrary to the traditional belief that the Mughals, originating from Central Asia, were indifferent to trade, recent research has debunked this notion. Central Asian kingdoms existed in vast treeless plains (steppe) with limited cultivable land. As a result, they recognized the significance of trade routes traversing through their territories from east to west and north to south. This understanding led the Mughal rulers to personally invest in the development of commerce and trade. For instance, Jahangir provided extra protection to traders. Additionally, the advancement of transport and communication systems facilitated business activities. A network of roads facilitated internal trade, with subsequent rulers after Sher Shah prioritizing the improvement of transportation facilities. In fact, transportation management in India during this period surpassed that of Europe. Inns were established along main roads at regular intervals of eight to ten miles.

Moreover, the development of a robust financial system facilitated the movement of goods, enabling easy transfer of money from one place to another. This was achieved through the use of hundis, which were letters of credit payable after a specified period, with a discount deducted. Hundis often included insurance provisions tailored to the value of goods, destination, mode of transport, and other relevant factors.

The period from the 16th to the 18th century was crucial for the development of foreign trade. Certain factors contributed to the growth of foreign trade during this time. The inclusion of Kabul and Kandahar in the Indian Empire under the Mughals was significant as both regions

were strategically located on important trade routes of West Asia and Central Asia, respectively. The royal family and prominent nobles showed keen interest in the development of commerce and trade. Notably, several nobles owned ships that made regular voyages to ports in the Red Sea and Southeast Asia. Personal ships belonging to Jahangir, Nur Jahan, and Shahzada Khurram operated between the ports of Surat and the Red Sea. The rise of powerful Asian states such as the Turkish, Safavid, and Mughal empires, as well as the Ming Empire in China, further facilitated trade by establishing law and order, promoting urbanization, and fostering monetization of their respective economies. Additionally, the arrival of European companies provided further impetus to foreign trade.

Urbanization

The establishment of the Mughal Empire brought forth numerous positive changes in the realm of economics. One notable change was the promotion of urbanization. This process, known as the 'Third Urbanization,' began in the 10th century and reached its pinnacle during the Mughal period. During this time, a significant number of villages transformed into towns, and some towns evolved into cities. Notably, Nizamuddin Ahmed, an important Persian writer of that era, mentions the existence of 120 major cities and 3,200 towns. Several factors contributed to the advancement of urbanization during this period.

1. As the focus shifted towards collecting land revenue in cash, the economy underwent a process of monetization. Consequently, grain markets began to emerge near villages, gradually evolving into towns.
2. The Mughal rulers offered significant assistance, known as madad-i-maash, which led to the development of numerous towns and cities with a substantial Muslim population.
3. The capital of the Mughal Empire and the provincial capitals underwent significant

development, transforming into thriving cities. Examples of such cities include Delhi, Agra, Allahabad, and Lakhnauti.

4. The capitals of some regional rulers also developed into cities. For example, Daulatabad, Hyderabad, Burhanpur etc.
5. There were some cities which were also associated with production, but the religious factor played an important role in their

development these cities, such as Mathura, Banaras etc.

6. Some cities were also developed due to specific types of production. Like Bayana because of indigo production, Khairabad because of cotton cloth.
7. The development of some cities can also be the result of individual efforts. For example, two nobles(Amirs) of Shahjahan established a city named Shahjahanpur.

